CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE HOLLY FERRY 115kV TRANSMISSION LINE, LEXINGTON AND SALUDA COUNTIES, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 528

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE HOLLY FERRY 115kV TRANSMISSION LINE, LEXINGTON AND SALUDA COUNTIES, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of an approximately 13-mile corridor in Lexington and Saluda counties, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The corridor is to be used by Central Electric Power Cooperative for the construction of a transmission line, which will connect an existing line to a recently surveyed lot for a substation. The topography is undulating with a mixture of soils from very poorly drained to well drained.

The proposed route will require the clearing of the corridor, followed by construction of the proposed transmission line. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project corridor. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the proposed transmission project was assumed.

An investigation of ArchSite revealed one archaeological site (38LX278) and six architectural sites (788-789, 790, and 792-794). Site 38LX278 is a prehistoric lithic scatter that was recorded in 1987 as part of a collections survey. It was recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

All of the architectural sites have also been found not eligible for the National Register. These include 0788 – a c. 1950 house; 0789 – a c. 1940 house; 0790 – a c. 1940 house; 0792 – a c. 1945 house; 0793 – a c. 1940 house; and 0794 – a c. 1950 house. These structures were recorded in response to the U.S. 1 road widening project.

The archaeological survey of the corridor incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the 75-foot right-of-way, which was marked by stakes. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh with a total of 704 shovel tests excavated along the corridor.

As a result of these investigations two sites (38LX606 And 38LX607**)** were identified. Both sites are sparse prehistoric pottery scatters and are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

A survey of public roads within a 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old within sight of the project corridor. No sites were found within the Saluda County portion of the project, however two sites (0818 and 0819) were recorded in Lexington County. Site 0818 is a c. 1930 house and 0819 is a c. 1920 house. Both have been significantly altered and are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. A third site (0820) was also recorded due to its proximity to the project corridor. Site 0820 is the c. 1952 Utopia School, now the Community Christian Academy. No determination of eligibility has been made on this structure, however it cannot be seen from the survey corridor, so it will not be visually impacted proposed transmission line. No comprehensive architectural surveys have been completed for Lexington or Saluda counties.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office

or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project consists of a 13-mile corridor to be used for a 115kV transmission line in Lexington and Saluda counties (Figure 1). The project runs approximately north - south between an existing transmission line and a lot to be used for a substation (Figure 2).

The proposed corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a transmission line. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing and construction, including erection of poles, will damage the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area.

Construction and maintenance of the transmission line may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. The project will not directly affect any historic structures (since none are located on the survey corridor),

but the completed facility may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating

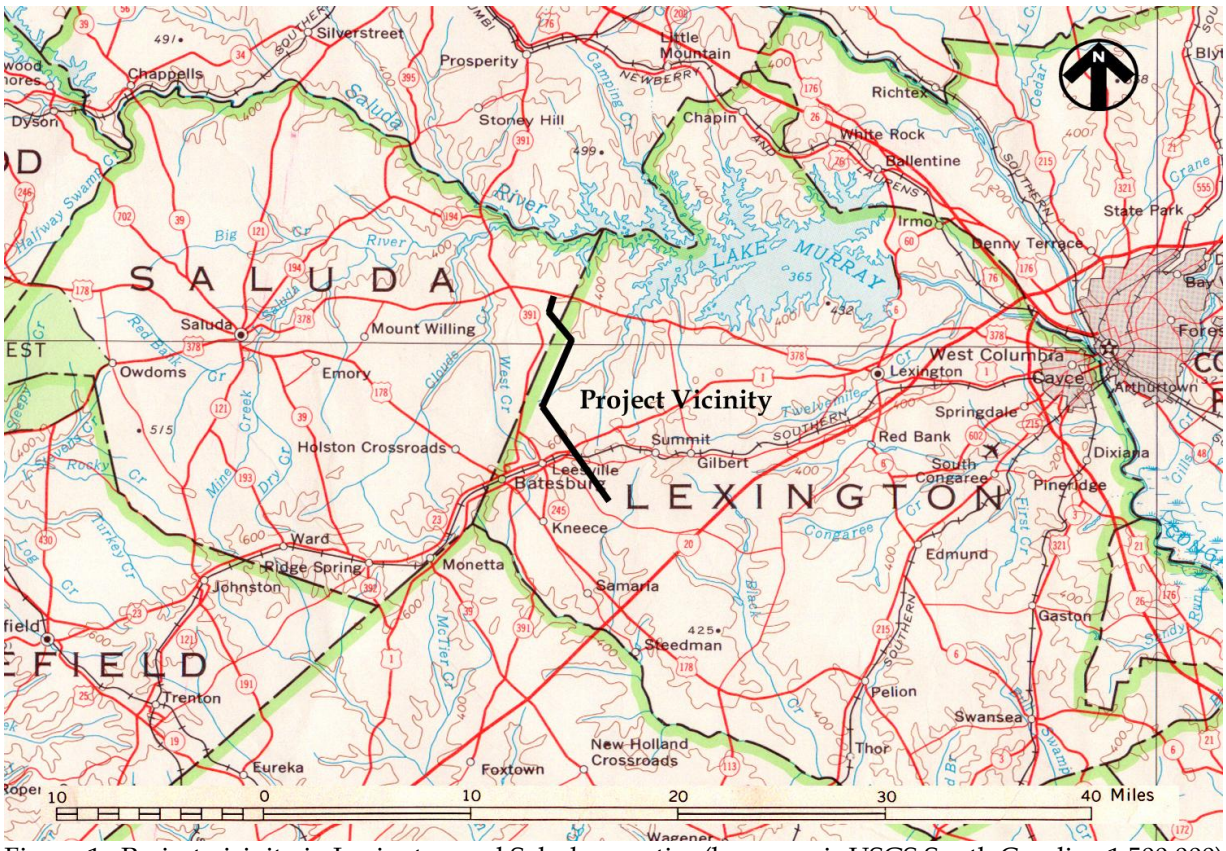

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Lexington and Saluda counties (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

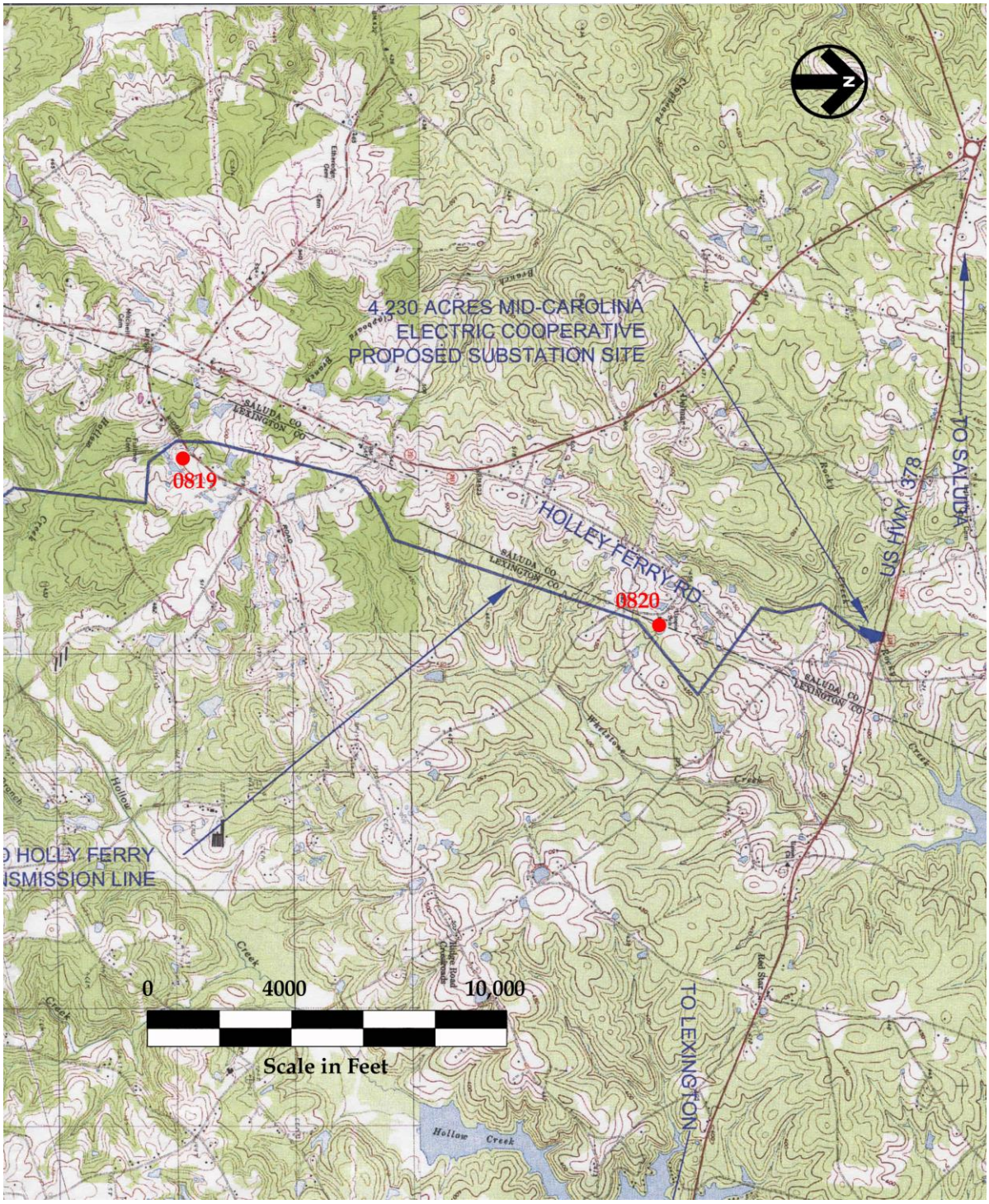

Figure 2. Northern half of the project corridor and newly identified architectural resources (basemaps are USGS Delmar, Lake Murray, and Batesburg 7.5')

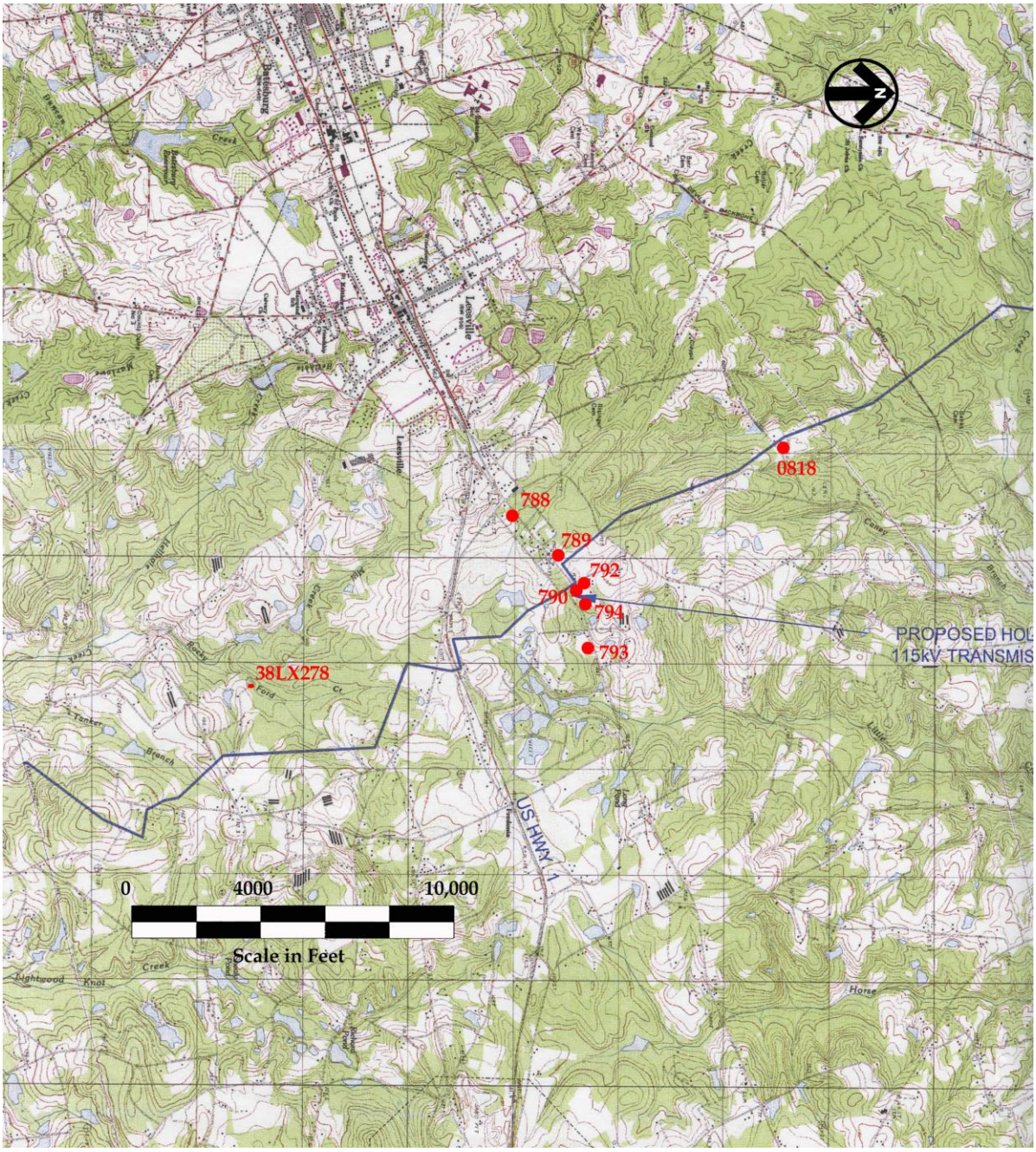

Figure 3. Southern half of the project corridor, previously identified archaeological and architectural sites, and newly identified architectural resource (basemaps are USGS Batesburg and Gilbert 7.5′)

what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile radius around the proposed survey corridor.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Lexington and Saluda counties.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to conduct a cultural resources survey for the project on May 24, 2010.

These investigations incorporated a review of ArchSite to locate any previously identified archaeological sites, architectural resources, or previously surveyed areas. One archaeological site, 38LX278, was identified within the 0.5 mile APE of the project. This site consisted of a lithic scatter of what was described as "1 Paleo Point" and "a few flakes of material from which Paleo Point was made and also a very few small flakes of coastal plain chert" (see site form dated 5/25/87 by Tommy Charles). Although no shovel testing was performed, the site was described as being compromised by erosion and cultivation and was recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

ArchSite also identified six architectural sites, 788-789, 790, and 792-794, which have all been determined not eligible for the National Register. These include 0788 – a c. 1950 house; 0789 – a c. 1940 house; 0790 – a c. 1940 house; 0792 – a c. 1945 house; 0793 – a c. 1940 house; and 0794 – a c. 1950 house. The structures were assessed during a survey prior to the widening of U.S. 1 (Roberts and Tippett 1989).

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted from July 6-12, 2010 by Ms. Debi Hacker and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. Two sites, 38LX606 and 38LX607, both prehistoric scatters were recorded. Artifacts were recorded on-site and discarded in the field.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age in proximity to the transmission corridor, revealed three additional structures (0818 - 0820) – all in Lexington County. Structures 0818 and 0819 are c. 1930 and c. 1920 houses respectively and are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Site 0820 is the c. 1952 Utopia School. No determination of eligibility was made for the School, however it cannot be seen from the project corridor and will not be visually impacted by the transmission line.

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from July 13-16, 2010. The only photographic materials associated with this project are digital images, which are not archival and will be retained for only 90 days.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiographic Province

The project area is located in Lexington and Saluda counties, which are situated in central South Carolina. Lexington is bounded to the north by Newberry County, to the east by Richland and Calhoun counties, to the south by Orangeburg County, and to the west by Aiken and Saluda counties. Saluda County is bounded to the southeast by Lexington and Aiken counties, to the west by Edgefield County, to the northwest by Greenwood County, and to the north by Newberry County.

The Saluda and Congaree rivers drain the eastern portion of Lexington County, and the north fork of the Edisto River drains the western portion. Numerous smaller streams (such as Hollow Creek and Tanker Branch) are found throughout the county and generally flow either northward into the Saluda or eastward into the Congaree.

Lexington County lies in two physiographic provinces: the Piedmont Plateau to the northwest of the "fall line" and the Sandhills to the southeast Saluda County falls almost entirely in the Piedmont, with the exception of the southernmost portion of the county, which lies in the Sandhills. In the vicinity of the Fall Line, dividing the Piedmont and Coastal Plain, major physiographic and geologic subdivisions occur which likely influenced human occupation. On major drainages, such as the Congaree River, the occurrence of rapids could interfere with water travel and the location of early historic occupation on the Fall Line reflects this concern (Jones 1971; Mills 1972 [1826]:157). The Fall Line also strongly influenced prehistoric occupation since its location between two major ecotones allowed exploitation of a greater diversity of resources.

Figure 4. View of the corridor through a cow pasture.

Geology and Soils

The project falls within both the Sandhills region and the Piedmont. The geology of the Sandhills is characterized by unconsolidated marine-deposited sediments.

Within the Piedmont, most of the rocks are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite also present (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the

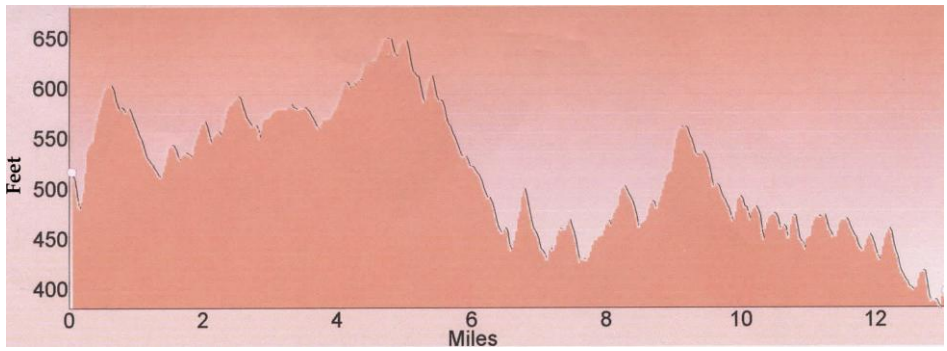

Figure 5. Profile of the transmission line showing numerous steep slopes (shown from south to north).

Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In this part of Lexington County, the soils are formed in saprolite that weathered from crystalline rocks and "Carolina Slates." Soils from river floodplains formed in sediment that washed from the uplands of the Piedmont province.

Physiographically, Lexington County – where the majority of the project route is located – is a thoroughly dissected plain. The relief ranges from nearly level to steep, but it is dominantly gently sloping to moderately steep. In the project area, elevations range from about 380 feet AMSL to 650 feet AMSL. Slopes on the project area range from 0 to 10%.

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry found that most of the survey line lies in areas exhibiting 25% to 75% of surface erosion and occasional gullies. A small portion at the center of the project route exhibits 75% to 100% surface erosion and occasional gullies.

Trimble's study of erosion in the Southern Piedmont shows that this area of Saluda and Lexington counties has lost up to 1.1 foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is also part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III – the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Within recent times, this area has been logged, likely increasing soil loss originating during earlier agricultural activities. The United

Table 1.
Soils found along the corridor

Soil Series	Notes	% of Corridor	Group %
Very Poorly Drained			**2.40%**
Johnston		2.40%	
Poorly Drained			**0.70%**
Rains sandy loam		0.70%	
Somewhat Poorly Drained			**8.60%**
Chenneby silty clay loam		2.70%	
Lignum silt loam	2-6% slopes	5.90%	
Moderately Well Drained			**11.10%**
Helena sandy loam	6-10% slopes	0.30%	
Pelion loamy sand	0-10% slopes	10.80%	
Well Drained			**63.30%**
Alamance very fine sandy loam	2-10% slopes	15.90%	
Appling sandy loam	2-10% slopes	2.50%	
Blaney sand	2-10% slopes	13.40%	
Cecil fine sandy loam	2-6% slopes	6.40%	
Chesterfield sandy loam	2-6% slopes	1.30%	
Enon silt loam	2-6% slopes	6.00%	
Fuquay loamy sand	0-6% slopes	4.20%	
Georgeville very fine sandy loam	2-10% slopes	1.40%	
Herndon silt loam	2-10% slopes eroded	11.20%	
Mecklenburg silt loam	6-10% slopes	1.00%	
Excessively Drained			**2.00%**
Lakeland sand	undulating	2.00%	
Somewhat Excessively Drained			**7.10%**
Troup sand	0-6% slopes	7.10%	
Other			**4.80%**
Gullied Lands		1.30%	
Mixed Alluvial Lands		3.20%	
Water		0.30%	

States Forest Service has determined that logging accounts for upwards of 0.36 tons of soil erosion per acre per year in this region, while areas of skid trails have erosion rates of about 9.91 tons per acre per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980:25).

A total of 18 different soil series are found along the project corridor – the results of which can be found in Table 1.

Floristics

Vegetation in the Sandhills region is characterized by two major forest types: the longleaf and loblolly pine communities (Frothingham and Nelson 1944:19-21). These communities consist primarily of pine with several species of hardwoods including gum and oak (Braun 1950: 285-286). Currently, the vegetation in the surrounding area consists of mixed pine/hardwood with a light to moderate understory of vegetation. In 1826 Robert Mills stated that the quality of lumber in the Lexington District was excellent:

Figure 6. View of the corridor through planted pines.

> It is no uncommon thing to find trees of this description girthing six or seven feet. Besides the poplar, walnut, maple, and various species of the oak, there are the mock-orange, evergreen, elm, hickory, ash, gum, &c. Of the fruit trees there are, the peach, plum, cherry, pear, quince, and apple; besides the native grapes, and various nuts and melons (Mills 1972 [1826]:617).

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). The potential natural vegetation of the area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak and post oak. In actuality, the Piedmont is composed of a patchwork of open fields, pine woodlots, hardwood stands, mixed stands, and second growth fields. Shelfore (1963) includes the Carolina Piedmont in the Oak-Hickory zone of the Southern Temperate Deciduous Forest Biome.

Today there is no vegetation in the project area that is consistent with the native forests of the area. The project corridor encounters many different types of vegetation including mixed pine and hardwood forests, planted pines, wetlands, fallow fields, and pasture.

Climate

The climate of both Lexington and Saluda counties is temperate and is usually characterized by mild winters and warm summers. Rainfall measures from 46 to 48 inches a year. The annual distribution indicates that July is the wettest month with October and November the driest. Summers are warm and long with temperatures reaching 90^{o} or higher on an average of 49 days, and they reach 100^{o} or more two or three days a year. Winters are mild and temperatures are as low as 32 degrees on 60% of the days. In 1826 Mills describes the climate as:

> mild and salubrious, except immediately bordering on the water-courses; what few diseases prevail are mostly confined to the bilious remittent fevers (Mills 1972 [1826]:621).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Archaeological Investigations

Previous archaeological investigations in Lexington County include studies by Anderson (1974a, 1974b, 1979), Anderson et al. (1974), Drucker (1977), Goodyear (1975), Harmon (1980), Michie (1970; 1971), Trinkley (1974, 1980) and Wogaman et al. (1976). The vast majority of these studies are associated with surveys of the Twelfth Street extension project or the Southeastern Beltway, although a number of sewer surveys have also been conducted. Others have focused on testing or excavation at sites such as the Manning site and the Thom's Creek site. Michie's work identifying Fort Congaree stands as a major research contribution for the area (Michie 1989). In addition, a number of highway department surveys (a number of which are referenced in Derting et al. 1991:309-310, 315,317-319; also see Roberts and Tippett 1989) and at least one reconnaissance for an industrial park (Green and Jones 2009) have been performed in the project vicinity.

During an archaeological survey of the Southeastern Beltway, Anderson et al. (1974) found that prehistoric sites occurring near the confluence of Congaree Creek and the Congaree River occurred on slightly elevated dry knolls or ridges within broad, flat, low-lying fields that overlook swamps (Anderson et al. 1974:4-5). Wogaman and his colleagues, based on additional highway survey in this same area, suggest that most sites will be found in the floodplain terraces and upland terraces associated with the floodplains, with relatively few sites being found in the Sandhills (Wogaman et al. 1976). Drucker's work on Twelvemile Creek found that while Early Archaic sites were found on the terraces adjacent to the creek, Middle and Late Archaic sites were not only found on the terraces, but also on the adjacent side slopes. Woodland occupation was found on alluvial terraces (Drucker 1977:48-50).

Very little historical archaeology has been performed in the Sandhills region of the state. However, work by Brooks and Crass (1991) at the Savannah River site provide some guidance to potential locations for historic sites in the region. During the colonial period, settlement was concentrated along major water courses on well drained elevated soils. However, during the late eighteenth century settlement had progressed up larger creeks. This pattern continued up through the mid-nineteenth century. During the postbellum and modern periods, settlement had shifted away from water courses and became more road oriented.

For Saluda County, relatively little work has been performed. Derting et al. (1991) shows only 27 surveys within the county. Almost all of the surveys represent compliance reports (for example see Judge and Drucker 1987). The substation associated with the current project, which is located in Saluda County, has been previously surveyed (Trinkley and Southerland 2007).

Brief Prehistoric Synopsis

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Anderson 1994 and Sassaman 1993). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a

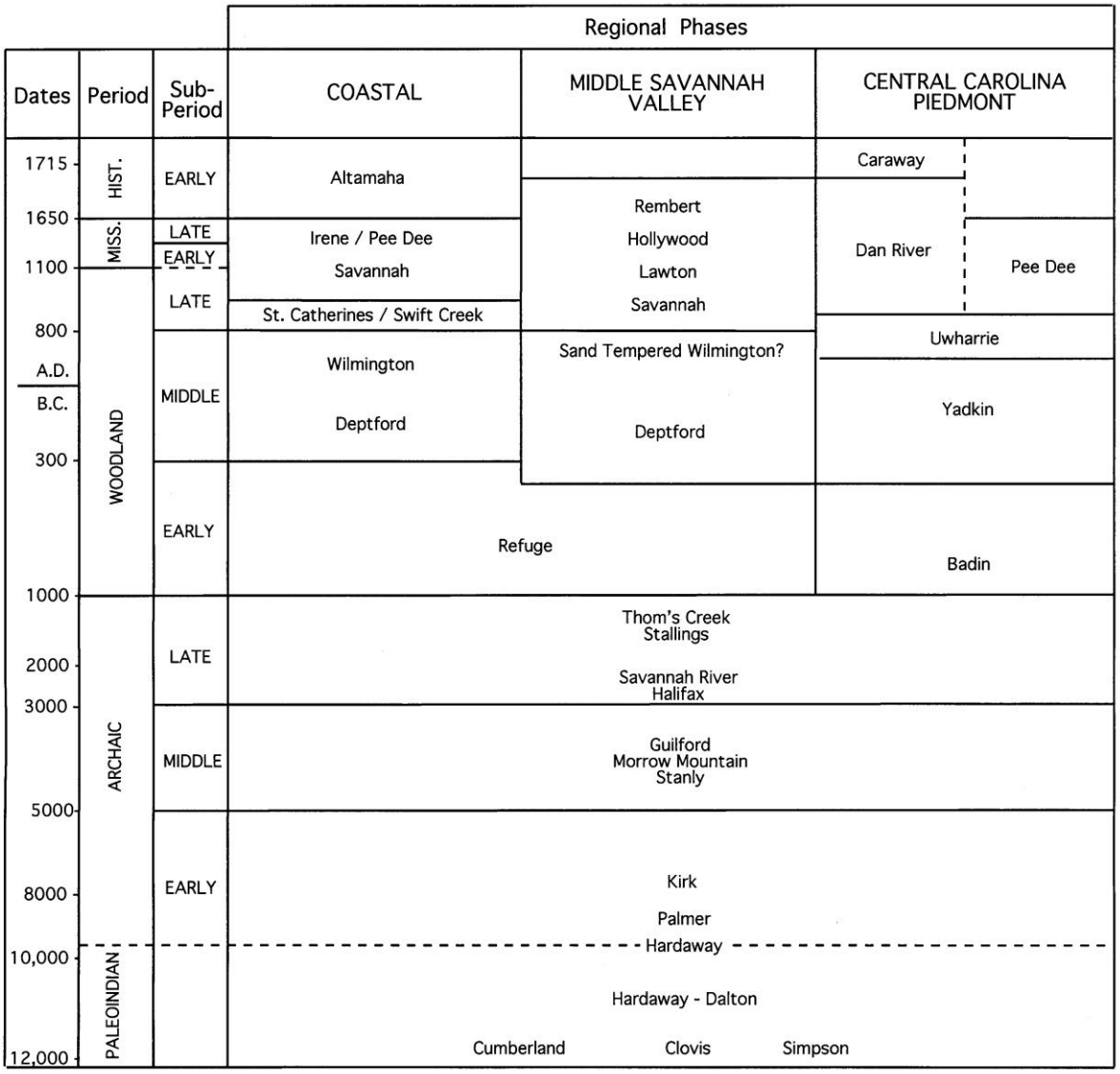

Figure 7. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

context for the various sites identified in the project area. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Figure 7 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

In the Carolina Piedmont, lithic scatters are the most common type of prehistoric site encountered. Goodyear et al. (1979:131-145) found that lithic scatter sites located in the inter-riverine Piedmont were geographically extensive and exhibited little artifact diversity. These sites have been interpreted as:

> limited or specialized activity sites which represent resource exploitation or other distinct functions. Nearly all investigators working in the

> Piedmont have related these sites to activities involving hunting, nut gathering, and procuring of lithic raw materials (Canouts and Goodyear 1985.:8).

Although the vast majority of these sites are located in eroded areas and exhibit little to no subsurface integrity, Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue that they have analytical value. This value lies in their horizontal rather than vertical dimensions. They argue that:

> [f]uture investigators of upland sites must effect broad-scalespatial analyses effected through excavation of deeply stratified sites. Both endeavors are necessary, and neither is sufficient for the total understanding of Piedmont prehistory (Canouts and Goodyear 1985:193).

One observation that Canouts and Goodyear (1985) made is that lithic raw material ratios change through time. For instance, at the Gregg Shoals site in Elbert County, Georgia, the Early Archaic assemblage reflects greater use of non-local cryptocrystalline materials and the Late Archaic, greater use of non-quartz local material (see Tippitt and Marquardt 1981). Examination of changing use of lithic resources will help archaeologists better understand issues such as the extent of seasonal rounds, trade networks, and social organization. Clearly, the discussions by Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue strongly for a higher regard for the "lowly" lithic scatter – a very common occurrence in the Piedmont.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). The distribution of Paleoindian tools offered by Anderson (1992:Figure 5.1) reveals a rather general, and widespread, occurrence throughout the region. Phelps (1983:21) states that settlement patterning in the Coastal Plain is impossible to meaningfully discuss since there have been so few recorded sites, but speculates on the presence of base camps along major streams, with special activity sites in the uplands. An alternative is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites that can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts -- these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials that has

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Phelps (1983:25) notes that the gradual increase from Paleoindian to Archaic in the Coastal Plain seems to peak during the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain phase.

Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrappers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one that includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982), Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (Braley 1990; cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Abbott et al. (1995) argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting

occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

Another point of some controversy is the idea that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain and Guilford points were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups that would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44).

Although fiber-tempered pottery has been known from South Carolina since at least the late 1950s, it remains relatively uncommon in the interior reaches of the state. Where found, the pottery is typically associated with Savannah River Stemmed points, steatite pottery or disks, and grooved axes.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine that reduced the oak-hickory nut masts that previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P.

and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery that is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

Early Woodland sites in the Sandhills seem to be dominated by small collections of the Late Archaic or Early Woodland Thom's Creek pottery, although its popularity has never been subjected to the careful scrutiny of multiple radiometric dates. Little is known about possible cultural associations, although there is some limited evidence that at least some of the small variants of the Savannah River Stemmed may be found with Early Woodland materials. The large triangular Roanoke point (South 1959:146-148) is likely also associated with Early Woodland ceramics.

In spite of our near total ignorance of Early Woodland sites, many suggest that the subsistence economy was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. This is based on the continuation of a generalized Late Archaic pattern, which may or may not be appropriate.

Further to the west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[3] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little more is known about the makers of the Badin pottery as is known about those who made New River wares.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. The Middle Woodland is best understood in the context of Deptford, which has been carefully described by DePratter (1979:118-119, 123-127), who suggests two divisions with check stamping and cord marking gradually being supplemented by complicated stamping. The introduction of clay or grog tempered Wilmington wares follows on the heels of the Deptford phase.

We do not, however, mean to imply that the origin of the Middle Woodland is well understood. In fact, Sassaman takes some pains to emphasize that the transition from Refuge to Deptford is not well understood:

> the Refuge-Deptford problem is the result of numerous regional processes that converge in the Savannah River region between 3000 and 2000 B.P. The sociopolitical entities that existed on the coast and in the interior during the fourth millennium dissolved after about 2400 B.P., resulting in the dispersal of small populations across the region. . . . Pottery designs changed from highly individualistic punctation and incision to the (seemingly) anonymous use of dowels for stamping. . . . the use of a carved paddle for simple stamping should mark the "blending" of Refuge and Deptford culture, or, more accurately, reflect the subsumption of Refuge culture by the expanding Deptford complex.

[3] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

> To complicate matters, the tradition of cord-wrapped paddles makes its way into the South Carolina area sometime after 2500 B.P. (Sassaman 1993:118-119).

The work by Milanich (1971) and Smith (1972), coupled with the considerable additional site-specific research (see, for example, DePratter 1991; Sassaman 1993:110-125; Thomas and Larsen 1979) provides an exceptional background for this particular phase. Milanich's (1971) interpretation of a coastal-estuarine settlement model with interior occupation limited to short-term extractive activities, while still useful, has been modified through the discovery of a number of interior base camps. In fact, there seems to be evidence for a number of interior seasonal or perhaps even permanent base camps, although there is as yet no convincing evidence of horticulture. Thomas et al. (1995:111) suggest that there have been few efforts "to enhance or refine Milanich's interpretations of settlement patterns." This, of course, is not strictly correct and Anderson (1985:48) provides a brief overview of some very significant concerns. He notes that Milanich's interpretation that the interior river valleys were used by small, residentially mobile foraging groups that dispersed from large coastal villages is clearly not correct. In fact, just the opposite appears more likely, with coastal use and settlement being seasonal (Anderson 1985:48-49).

Moving to the Piedmont the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series (which is also frequently identified at Sandhill sites in North and South Carolina). Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

It seems that South Carolina, just like Georgia and North Carolina, is struggling to comprehend, and deal with, a broad array of Middle Woodland cord marked pottery.

Although Deptford and Yadkin pottery are usually well recognized, the associated lithic technology is not. From a broad range of sites and contexts come "medium-sized triangular" points, Yadkin-like triangular points, and even a range of small triangular points.

The Middle Woodland cannot be fully appreciated without reference to Hopewellian influences, whether the presence of coastal sand burial mounds and their evidence of status differences (e.g., Thomas and Larsen 1979) or the presence of occasional exchange goods. Sassaman et al. note that while there is a lack of "obvious" Hopewellian influence in the Savannah area, there is nevertheless evidence of a "higher order of sociopolitical complexity" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). They note that the broad similarities in ceramic design evidence the movement of ideas, or "interprovincial integration," not seen in the Early Woodland. The presence of coastal shells found at interior sites demonstrates the movement of goods.

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Along the coast many archaeologists view the St. Catherines pottery as an important aspect in the gradual progression from Deptford to Savannah wares. Perhaps the most succinct

summary of the Georgia Late Woodland St. Catherines phase is that offered by DePratter and Howard (1980:16-17). Significantly, they note that most of the Georgia data comes from burial mound excavations, "because only limited village [and presumably shell midden] excavations have been conducted" (DePratter and Howard 1980:16). Even with burials there is a limited range of artifact types -- shell beads, worked whelk shell bowls or drinking cups, bone pins, and triangular projectile points. Not only is little known about village life, nothing is known concerning residential structures and there is no good evidence of agricultural crops. Once again, the Late Woodland is presented as little more than an extension of the previous Middle Woodland lifeways.

Moving inland from the coast our understanding of the Late Woodland is uneven, giving the impression that broad expanses of the Inner Coastal Plain and perhaps even the Sandhills were largely ignored by prehistoric people. Sites, where found, appear to focus on edge areas, such as the terraces overlooking swamps or the sandy ground around Carolina bays.

Moving into the Piedmont the Late Woodland is typically associated with small triangular points such as Uwharrie, Caraway, Pee Dee, and Clarksville (Coe n.d., 1964:49; Oliver 1985; South 1959:144-146). The characteristic pottery is the Uwharrie series, which contains crushed quartz (one characteristic of which is its tendency to protrude through the wall of the pottery). This series included cord-marked and net-impressed surface treatments. Coe described the ware in the unpublished Poole site report (Coe n.d.).[4] This pottery appears to represent an evolution from the earlier Yadkin wares (Coe 1995:156). Of equal interest is a radiocarbon date of A.D. 1610, suggesting that this pottery lasted well into the protohistoric.

South Appalachian Mississippian

In neighboring North Carolina the Mississippian is typically identified with the Pee Dee culture, defined through the excavations of Joffre Coe at Town Creek site in central North Carolina (Coe 1995; Reid 1967). The site, generally accepted to represent a northern intrusion of a Mississippian chiefdom, was originally dated from about A.D. 1550 to 1750, although more recent analyses suggests a date more likely between A.D. 900 and 1400 (Coe 1995:159).

In Georgia the Mississippian, at its simplest, is seen as the Savannah Phase, consisting of three subphases, followed by the Irene, broken into two subphases. This follows a simple coastal chronology based almost entirely on the results of excavations at Irene (Caldwell and McCann 1941) and the resulting synthesis by DePratter (1979:Table 30; 1991:183-193).

Anderson's (1994) research, combined with the overview edited by Williams and Shapiro (1990), reveals that these simplified views likely obscure a tremendous amount of variation. In central South Carolina researchers such as DePratter, based on research at the Camden, South Carolina mounds, have suggested a series of phases termed Belmont Neck, Adamson, Town Creek, McDowell, Mulberry, and Daniels (Williams and Shapiro 1990:56-58).

Brief Historic Synopsis

The survey corridor is situated in two modern-day counties – Lexington (the southern 12 miles) and Saluda (the northern mile of corridor). Present day Saluda County was once part of the Ninety-Six District, which was created in 1769 as one of seven districts in South Carolina (Long 1997). By 1800, the district was split with the creation of the Abbeville, Edgefield (containing the northern portion of the corridor), Greenville, Laurens, and Newberry districts. Lexington District remained relatively unchanged,

[4] This study was intended to be published under a monograph series entitled, *University of North Carolina Laboratory of American Archaeology Publications*, but was never completed. The work was conducted in 1936, although the ensuing report is undated.

eventually becoming Lexington County.

General accounts of Lexington County history are presented by Anderson (1975), Gay (1974), Goodyear (1975), Meriwether (1940), Michie (1989), and Trinkley (1974).

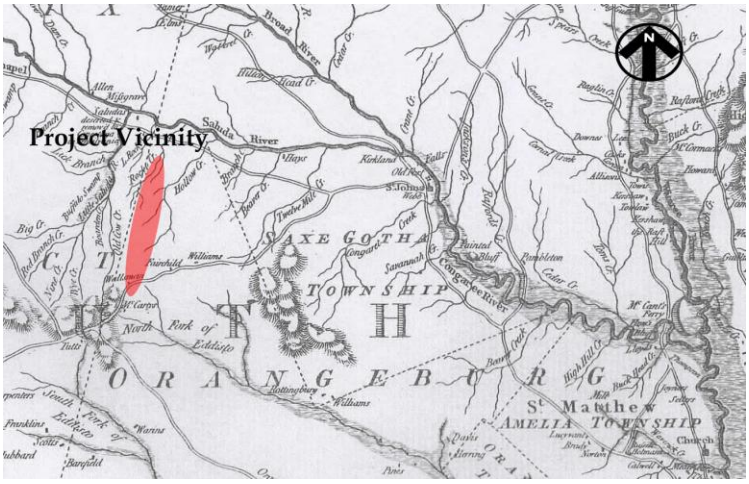

Figure 8. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 map showing the project vicinity.

Lexington County was first occupied by Europeans who built a fortified military garrison (Fort Congaree) in 1718 on the site of a former Congaree Indian village. A second fortification was established 22 miles north after attacks by Iroquois from the Ohio Valley upon settlers in the late 1740s. These two forts were significant in the defense of the Carolina Back Country (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:132).

The first large trading post in central South Carolina was built near the old Congaree fort site in 1733. This post was an exchange center between Charles Town and the western settlements. During this year the area received political identity as Congaree District. Two years later it was renamed Saxe Gotha in an attempt to bring immigrants from Germany and Switzerland to the piedmont. Most of these early settlers were small farmers while the more prosperous ones operated stores, trading posts, saw and grist mills.

When the wagon road between the town and Augusta was opened in 1754, river traffic increased. A ferry operation began over the Congaree, and the village moved towards the ferry site where Granby Village was established sometime before 1774. As the head of navigation on the Congaree River, Granby became an important commercial center. Indigo, cotton, manufactured ropes, Indian corn, beeswax, and other goods from Saxe Gotha and the up country were transported to Charles Town where they were exchanged for salt, fabrics and other merchandise needed in the interior (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:134). Mouzon's Map of 1775 locates Saxe Gotha Township within the Orangeburg Precinct. While it shows the "Old Fort," and Twelve Mile Creek (Figure 8), it otherwise reveals that even this late, the Lexington area was a sparsely settled frontier.

During the American Revolution Fort Granby, below the present town of Cayce, was the major outpost for British regulars in the area. In 1785, Lexington County was established in the Orangeburg District. With the development of Columbia, across the river, Granby Village declined in importance. The county seat was then moved from Granby Village to the town of Lexington (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:135-136).

While Tory forces were quite active in the Edgefield District during the American Revolution, no skirmishes took place near the present survey area. From Charles Town, a direct route was established to the town of Ninety-Six, west of the survey area, which caused its evacuation in 1781 (Morrill 1993).

Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 of Lexington District shows the project area as containing almost no subscribers within the vicinity of the survey area (Figure 9). Settlements on Mills' map, where present, are typically restricted to the roadways. The southern portion of the corridor is near Dent's

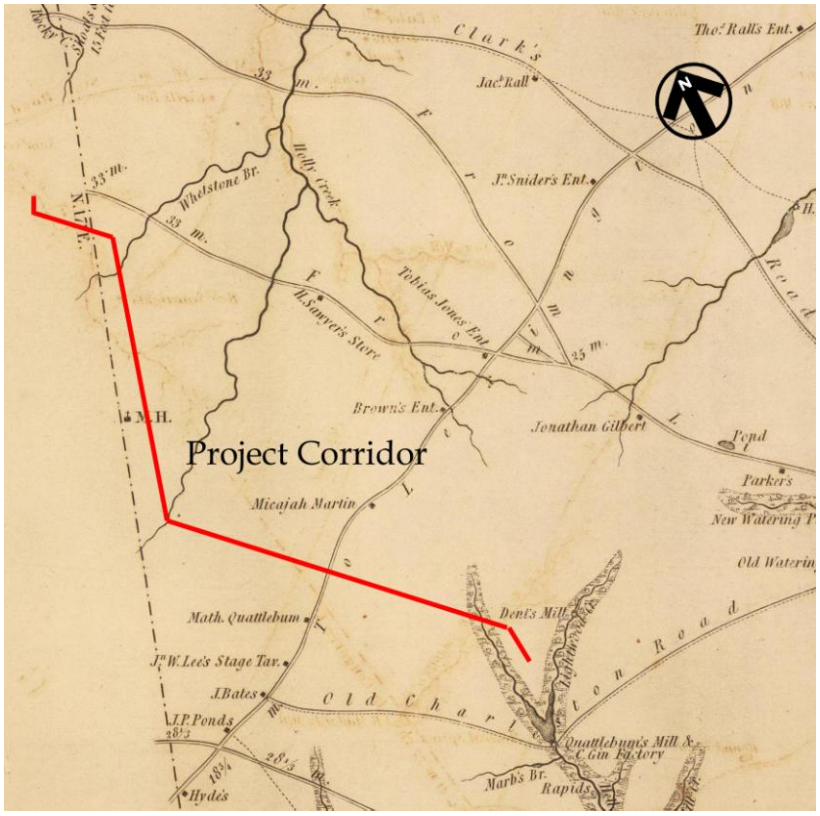

Figure 9. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project corridor in the Lexington District.

Mill along Lightwood Creek, which flows into Hell Hole Creek and eventually the North Edisto River. The one major road that the corridor crosses – which runs to the town of Lexington – shows two subscribers nearby – Micojah Martin and Math. Quattlebum. Also along the corridor within Lexington District is a Meeting House, which is on the border with Edgefield District. Mills' *Atlas* showing the portion of the corridor in Edgefield District (Figure 10) fails to show any settlements in the vicinity.

In 1826, Mills remarks that the Edgefield District is historically similar to other nearby districts:

> There is nothing that distinguishes the settlement of Edgefield from that of other districts in the upper and middle country. They were all gradually settled as the tide of emigration rolled from the north and east. It however may be observed of this, in contradistinction to some other districts, which were peopled a good deal by foreigners and their immediate descendants, (namely, by Irish, Scotch, and Dutch, mixed with a few English,) that Edgefield was settled principally, and indeed almost altogether, by emigrants from Virginia and North Carolina (Mills 1972 [1826]:519-529).

By 1900, the population of Edgefield District consisted of 13,063 whites, 5,006 African-

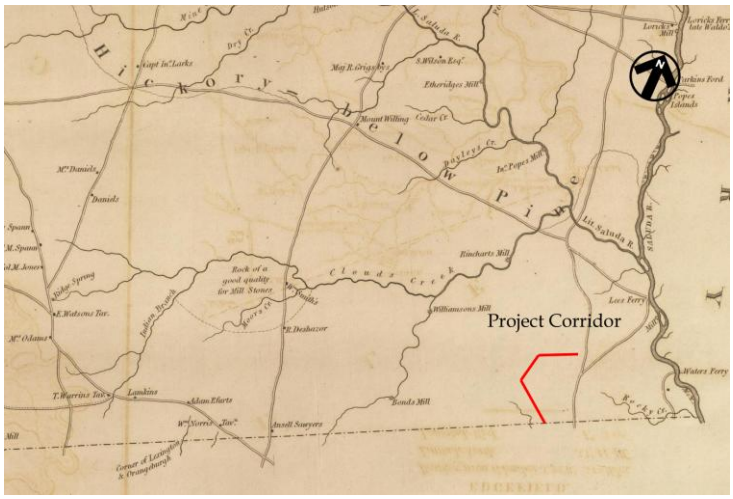

Figure 10. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project corridor in the Edgefield District.

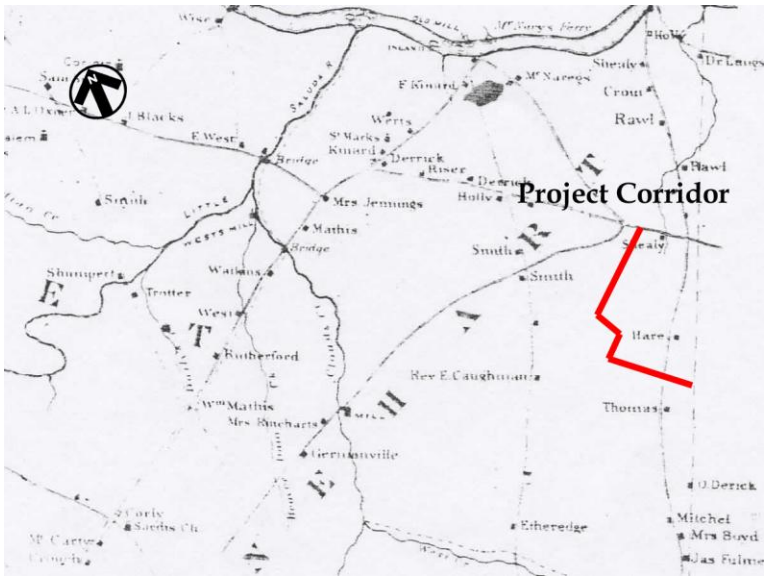

Figure 11. Portion of an 1871 map of Edgefield County showing the project corridor.

American slaves, and 61 free blacks totaling 18, 130. In twenty years, the population increased by about 7,000 with 12,864 whites, 19,198 slaves, and 57 free blacks, for a total of 25,119 individuals (Mills 1972 [1826]:527, 664). By 1850, the population had increased substantially. There were 16,252 whites, 22,725 slaves, and 285 free blacks, totaling 39,262. In the years preceding the Civil War, the population growth in the state slowed considerably as planters and farmers left the exhausted soils of South Carolina and moved to Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:92-93).

By 1860 Lexington County contained 73 saw mills, one cotton and wool mill, eight carriage and wagon makers, one sash and blind factory, two boot and shoe makers, one tannery, one blacksmith, one turpentine distillery, one printing establishment, and one wooden bucket factory. Also, Guignard Brickworks, established in 1804, was a prospering business. The largest single pre-war industry by far was the Saluda Factory on the Congaree (see Trinkley 1989).

During the Civil War Union forces invaded Lexington County and shelled the city of Columbia from the west bank of the Congaree. The Edgefield District saw some activity during the Civil War, although the area of present Saluda County was untouched.

After the war most families were left destitute. Economic recovery was slow, aggravated by lack of capital and heavy reliance on an unproductive agricultural economy (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:136-137). Immediately after the Civil War, cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again, in hope of recouping losses from the War. The single larges problem across the South, however, was labor. While some freedmen stayed on to work, others, apparently many others, left.

An 1871 map of Edgefield County shows the vicinity of the project corridor (Figure 11). No structures are shown on the project corridor, but the Shealy settlement is shown just to the east. An 1873 map of Edgefield County (Figure 12) no longer shows the Shealy house and no further settlements are shown near the survey area.

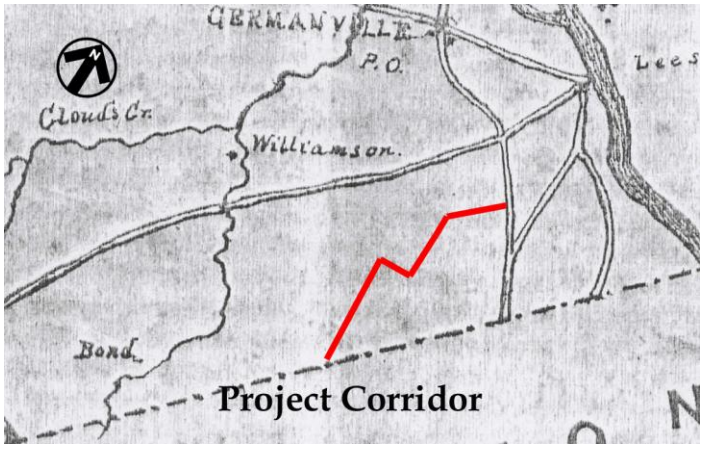

Figure 12. Portion of an 1873 Edgefield County map showing the project area.

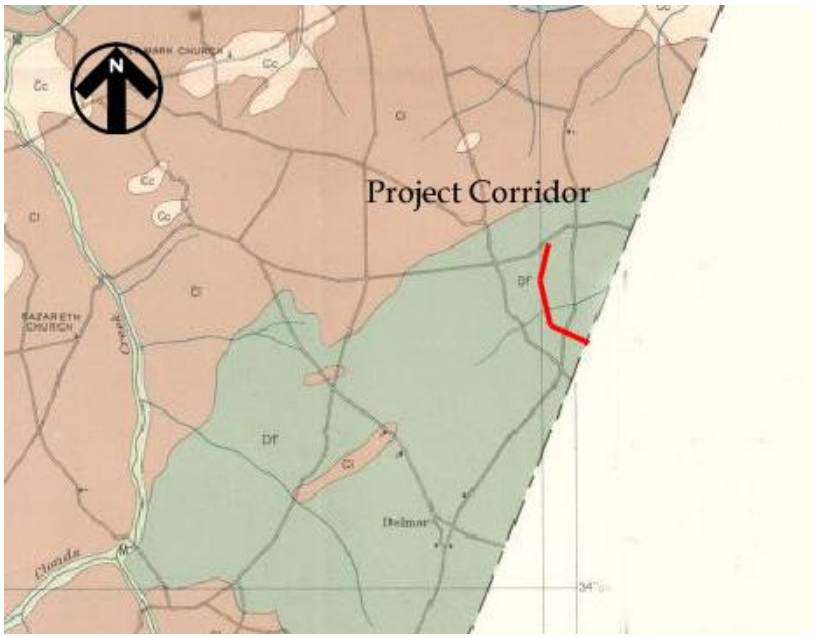

Figure 13. Portion of the 1909 Soil Survey for Saluda County showing the project corridor.

The hiring of freedmen began immediately after the war, with variable results. The Freedmen's Bureau attempted to establish a system of wage labor, but the effort was largely tempered by the enactment of the Black Codes by the South Carolina Legislature in September 1865. These Codes allowed nominal freedom, while establishing a new kind of slavery, severely restricting the rights and freedoms of the black majority (see Orser 1988:50). Added to the Codes were oppressive contracts that reinforced the power of the plantation owner and degraded the freedom of the Blacks. The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

Gradually, owners turned away from wage labor contracts to two kinds of tenancy – sharecropping and renting. While very different, both succeeded in making land ownership very difficult, if not impossible, for the vast majority of Blacks. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay his landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required that he pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. In sharecropping, the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the fertilizer, the landlord supplied everything else – land, house, tools, work animals, animal feed, wood for fuel, and the other half of the needed fertilizer. In return, the landlord received half of the crop at harvest. This system became known as "working on halves," and the tenants as "half hands," or "half tenants."

In share-renting, the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer costs. The tenant supplied the labor, animals, animal feed, tools, seed, and the remainder of the fertilizer. At harvest, the crop was divided in proportion to the amount of fertilizer that each party supplied. A number of variations on this occurred, one of the most common being "third and fourth," where the landlord received one-fourth of the cotton crop and one-third of all other crops. In cash-renting, the landlord provided the land and housing, with the renter providing everything else and paying a fixed per-acre rent in cash.

In the 1880s, Edgefield County had no cotton mills and none under construction. Cotton was, however, being produced in large amounts and it was estimated that the average cost of producing merchantable cotton was about eight cents a pound and 40 dollars to bale 500 pounds. It appears that a large portion of the manufacturing in the county was milling grain or

Figure 14. Portion of the 1922 Soil Survey for Lexington County showing the project corridor.

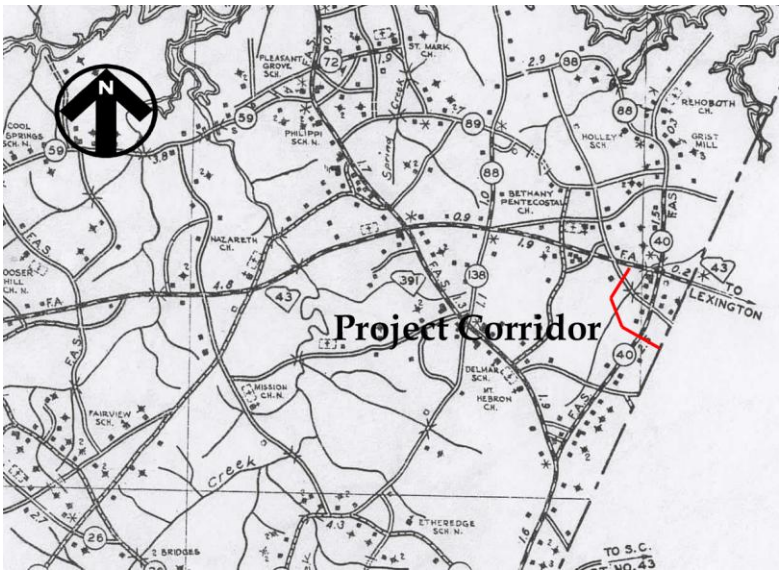

Figure 15. Portion of the 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Saluda County* showing the project corridor.

producing lumber and turpentine. Of the 84 manufacturing establishments in Edgefield County, there were 55 grist mills, 22 lumber mills, and six turpentine establishments (Anonymous 1884).

In 1896, Saluda County was created from Edgefield County. The 1909 Saluda County Soil Survey (Figure 13) fails to show any structures in the vicinity of the project corridor.

The 1922 Lexington County Soil Survey (Figure 14) shows several settlements near the route of the project corridor, however, no structures were identified archaeologically. Two of the identified architectural sites, 0818 and 0819, are shown on this map.

The *General Highway and Transportation Map of Saluda County* (1939) and the *General Highway and Transportation Map of Lexington County* (1940) shows many structures surrounding the corridor, but no structures were found archaeological on the corridor (Figures 15 and 16). Both identified architectural sites 0818 and 0819 are found on these maps.

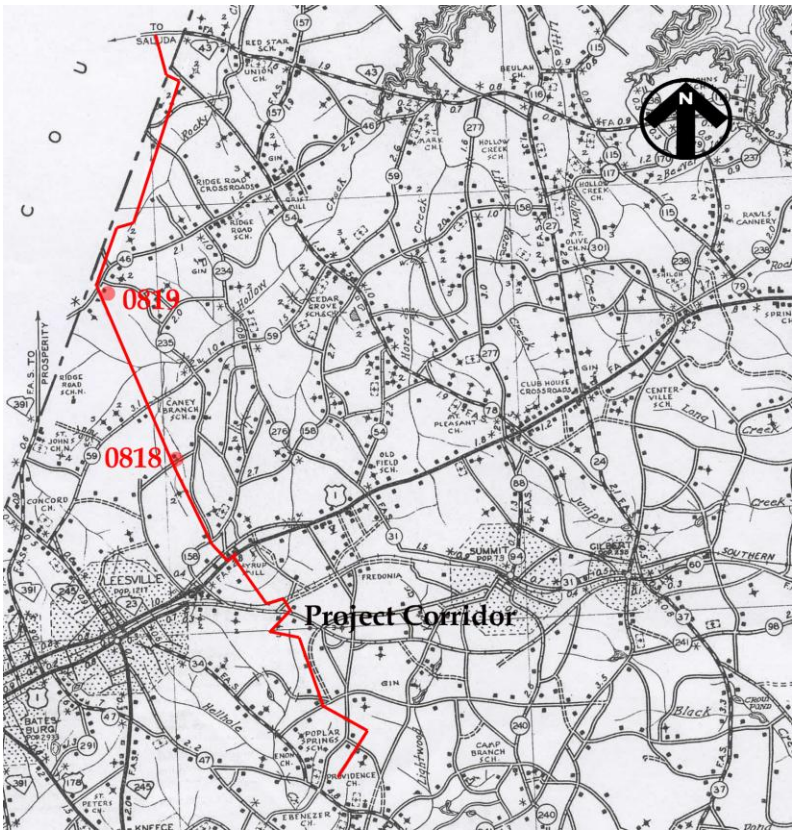

Figure 16. Portion of the 1940 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Lexington County* showing the project corridor.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the corridor which has a 75-foot right-of-way.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially from the southern portion of the corridor, heading north. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.5 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Figure 17. View of the corridor through a logged area.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with no significant modifications. A total of 704 shovel tests were excavated along the corridor including shovel tests for the identified sites.

The GPS positions were taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study area given the large amounts of forest in which that most of the sites were found.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey would record only those which has retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and that were visible from public

Figure 18. View of corridor through a grassed area.

roads.

For each identified resource, we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs would be taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, work-manship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or

sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites, the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials -- the physical items used on and in the property -- are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

As previously mentioned, artifacts from the two identified sites were noted and discarded in the field, so no curation is necessary. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, classification of prehistoric materials were defined by such authors as Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey two archaeological sites (38LX606 and 38LX607) were recorded (Figures 19 and 21). Both sites are sparse prehistoric pottery scatters and are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places for their inability to address significant research questions.

No comprehensive architectural survey has been performed for Lexington or Saluda counties. This project recorded two historic structures that were in immediate sight of the proposed corridor (0818 and 0819) and one (0820) near the corridor, but out of view – all in Lexington County. Site 0818 is a c. 1930 house while site 0819 is a c. 1920 house. Neither house appears to retain enough integrity to be considered eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Site 0820 is the c. 1952 Utopia School. No determination of eligibility has been made for this structure, however it is out of view from the corridor. The six other previously recorded architectural sites (788-789, 790, and 792-794) have already been determined not eligible for the National Register and will not be further affected by the current project.

Archaeological Resources

38LX606

Location: Zone 17; 457321E 3750646N (NAD27 datum)
Elevation: 535 feet AMSL
Component: Unknown prehistoric scatter
Size: 150 feet x 50 feet
Nearest water source: Tanker Branch about 1,200 feet to the west
Previous disturbance: Area has been logged
Landform location: Ridge side slope
Vegetation: Mixed pine and hardwood forest

Site Description

Site 38LX606 is located about 200 feet west of Dixired Road, about 1,000 feet north of its junction with Buck Smith Road (Figure 19). It contains a sparse prehistoric pottery scatter. The site is located on a ridge side slope that has been damaged from logging.

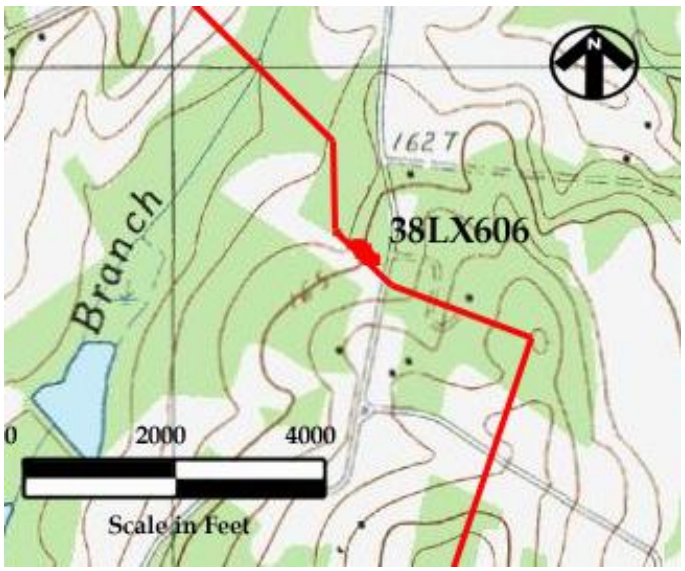

Figure 19. 38LX606 shown on USGS Gilbert 7.5' topo.

Investigation Methods

The site was originally identified when shovel testing at 100-foot intervals produced a positive test (ST 21). Additional shovel testing at 50-foot intervals was conducted along the corridor, which ran approximately NNW by SSE. This produced two additional shovel tests (ST 22 and ST 22.5). Additional testing was done to the east and west of each of the three positives, however, since the right-of-way of the corridor

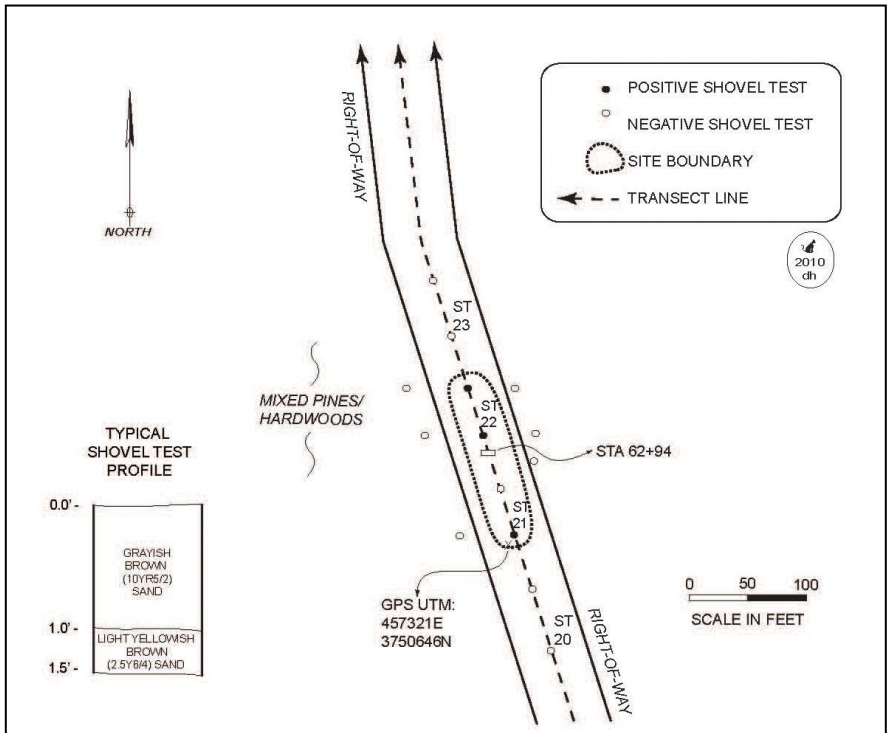

Figure 20. Sketch map and soil profile for 38LX606.

was only 75 feet, only one shovel test was performed (instead of obtaining at least two negatives), since it was located outside the project area. A total of 14 shovel tests were performed in the site area with three (21%) positive (Figure 20).

Shovel tests produced Fuquay soils that have an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) sand to 0.7 foot in depth over a light yellowish brown (2.5 Y6/4) sand. Artifacts were found in the upper 0.7 foot of soil.

Artifacts

A total of three prehistoric sherds were recovered from the site. Each of the pieces are under 1-inch in diameter and has sandy paste and a worn surface that cannot be associated with a specific phase of the Woodland Period.

Summary and NRHP Evaluation

Evaluation of this site's potential for listing on the National Register of Historic Places should be based on factors such as archaeological site integrity, data sets present, and potential to contribute meaningful research. This site produced only three artifacts, none of which are diagnostic. While it is possible that the site extends outside the project area, the limited testing just outside the corridor produced no additional artifacts. Given the limited information, it is unlikely that this site will produce data sets that can address significant research questions about the prehistory of Lexington County.

This site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is recommended pending the review and concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office.

38LX607

Location: Zone 17; 454448E 3755359N (NAD27 datum)
Elevation: 615 feet AMSL
Component: Unknown prehistoric scatter
Size: 50 feet x 50 feet
Nearest water source: Unnamed branch of Hollow Creek about 800 feet west
Previous disturbance: Area has been logged
Landform location: Ridge side slope
Vegetation: Mixed pine and hardwood forest

Site Description

Site 38LX607 is located about 400 feet west of Caney Brach Road, about 1,000 feet north of its

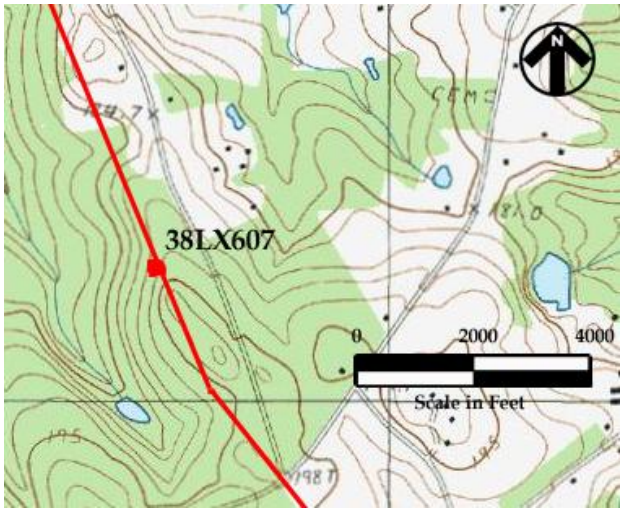

Figure 21. 38LX607 shown on USGS Gilbert 7.5' topo.

intersection with Windmill Road (Figure 21). The site contains a single shovel tests with small prehistoric pot sherds.

Investigation Methods

The site was originally identified through shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the corridor. What was recorded as shovel test 48 (about 25 feet south of Stake 275+93) was positive. Shovel testing was performed at 50-foot intervals along the project corridor, which ran approximately NNW by SSE, until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. Shovel testing to the east and west of the positive test incorporated only one test in either direction, since the right-of-way for the corridor was only 75 feet. A total of seven shovel tests were excavated with only one (14%) positive (Figure 22).

Soil profiles in this area usually resemble Blaney soils that have an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) sand to 0.2 foot over a dark grayish brown (2.5Y4/2) sand, occurring to a depth of 0.8 foot. The subsoil is a pale brown (10YR6/3) sand that can occur to 2.1 feet in depth. Testing revealed that the top 0.2 foot of soil was missing, but the artifacts were recovered in the pale brown subsoil.

Artifacts

A total of seven sherds were found at this site. All the sherds are small and are not able to be linked to a specific time in prehistory. Given that all the sherds were found in one shovel test, this may indicate they all came from a single pot, however the sherds are highly eroded and were unable to fit together.

Summary and NRHP Evaluation

Evaluation of this site's potential for listing on the National Register of Historic Places should be based on factors such as archaeological site integrity, data sets present, and potential to contribute meaningful research. This site produced only one data set with none of the sherds diagnostic. In addition, all the sherds came from one shovel test, which may indicate, what is in a sense, an isolated find. It is unlikely that this site will produce any additional information that would be able to answer research questions about

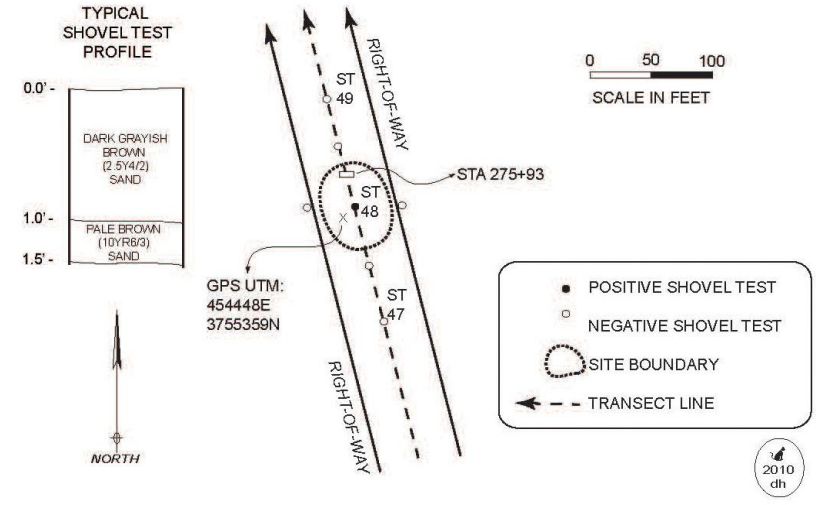

Figure 22. Sketch map and soil profile for 38LX607.


Figure 23. View of 0818.

the prehistory of the area.

This site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is recommended pending the review and concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office.

Architectural and Other Historic Resources

As previously mentioned, the six previously identified architectural sites (788-789, 790, and 792-794) within 0.5 mile of the current project corridor, have all been determined not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. These include 0788 – a c. 1950 house; 0789 – a c. 1940 house; 0790 – a c. 1940 house; 0792 – a c. 1945 house; 0793 – a c. 1940 house; and 0794 – a c. 1950 house. The structures were assessed during a survey prior to the widening of U.S. 1 (Roberts and Tippett 1989).

While the current survey failed to identify any structures within view of the corridor that are potentially eligible for the National Register, three historic structures (0818 - 0820) were recorded due to their close proximity to the proposed corridor (see Figures 2 and 3).

Structure 0818 is a c. 1930 house located on Walter Shealy Road about 200 feet east of the proposed transmission route (Figure 23). The house is a Craftsman style with a gable roof and hip porch. The porch, however, has been rebuilt, extending east beyond the house to connect to another small building. A rear addition has also been added and the roof, windows, and front door have been replaced. A tobacco barn is also associated with this property (Figure 24). The heating element is now missing, but the barn has elements of log construction. While the barn is located immediately outside the project corridor, we were informed by a surveyor that the owner requested the barn be avoided by construction activities (Mike Mills, personal


Figure 24. Tobacco barn associated with 0818.

Figure 25. View of 0819.

communication 2010).

Structure 0819 is a c. 1920 house located on Ridge Road about 300 feet east of the corridor (Figure 25). The house has a side gable roof and hipped porch. The railings on the porch appear to have been reworked and there is a rear addition. A tenant house is associated with the structure that is approximately 100 feet east of the project corridor, but the structure is in ruinous condition (Figure 26).

Both structures have lost integrity through remodeling and are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. In addition, there are existing transmission lines that have already impacted the visual integrity of the structures.

The final recorded structure (0820) is the c. 1952 Utopia School. The school was operated as a public school until around 1986. In 1988, the school was obtained by the privately operated Community Christian Academy (RMC Deed Book R 1172:1). Mr. Billy Derrick (personal communication 2010), who attended Utopia School, believes that this was one of three schools built around the same time – the others being Hampton Elementary and Twin city High School. Mr. Derrick's thought is that Utopia was built for the white students while the other two were built for the black students. This property should be further researched until a determination of eligibility can be made. While the school is within about 600 feet of the proposed corridor, a dense forest prevents view between the properties. The transmission line will not cause any negative visual impact to the school.

Figure 26. View of the tenant house associated with 0819.

Figure 27. View of 0820.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of a 13 mile corridor for a transmission line in Lexington and Saluda counties. This work, conducted for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist this company in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation, two archaeological sites (38LX606 and 38LX 607) were found in the survey area. Both sites are small prehistoric scatters and are recommended not eligible for the National Register for their inability to address significant research questions about the prehistory of this area.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed the six previously identified architectural sites (788-789, 790, and 792-794) and three additional sites (0818 - 0820) near the project corridor. The six previously identified sites have been determined not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Sites 0818 and 0819 are recommended not eligible for their lack of integrity. No eligibility determination was made for 0820, however it cannot be seen from the project corridor.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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